A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE TENSE-ASPECT SYSTEM BETWEEN JAPANESE AND ENGLISH: A FOUNDATION FOR A PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR OF JAPANESE USING LEARNERS’ KNOWLEDGE OF THEIR MOTHER TONGUES

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE TENSE-ASPECT SYSTEM BETWEEN JAPANESE AND ENGLISH: A FOUNDATION FOR A PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR OF JAPANESE USING LEARNERS’ KNOWLEDGE OF THEIR MOTHER TONGUES*

ISAO IORI

I. Introduction

One of the most important purposes of the pedagogical grammar of Japanese is production (Iori 2015a, 2016, 2017). For this purpose, the grammar must build on learners’ knowledge of their mother tongues, and concisely describe the language to be acquired. Systematic descriptions based on comparative studies are needed for the former.

In this paper, I propose a tense-aspect system for modern Japanese based on the pedagogical grammar of Japanese and compare it with English. If the comparison is basically accurate, similar comparisons of tense-aspect systems between other European languages and Japanese should only need minor adjustments corresponding to differences between the former and English.

Using Japanese descriptions, this paper develops a common framework to use when teaching tense and aspect in Japanese.

II. Pedagogical Grammar of Japanese Using Learners’ Knowledge of Their Mother Tongue

The motivation for this paper basically follows Zhang (2011), who argues that it is possible in adult L2 acquisition to make successful use of positive transfers while suppressing negative transfers. I adopt this view, which can be conceived of as “Japanese language education using knowledge of learners’ mother tongues”, and argue that it is a fruitful source of study to acquire a “grammar for production”.

III. Viewpoints Required in Comparative Studies

As comparative study is important for Japanese language education using learners’ knowledge of their mother tongue, I will briefly introduce in this section some relevant studies I deem important for Japanese language instruction.

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* This paper is an English version of Iori (2019). See also Iori (forthcoming b).
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1. From Meaning to Form: Halliday (1994)

I begin with Halliday (1994), one of the most important works by this outstanding linguist. Halliday argues in this book that the most important characteristic of functionalism is its treatment of grammar as a process for mapping meaning onto form, which sharply contrasts with the formalist viewpoint that grammar is a way of mapping form onto meaning (Halliday, 1994:xiv).

While most comparative studies have taken a formalist perspective, typified by Chomsky, with positive outcomes, I argue this Hallidian functionalism perspective is essential for comparative study. Specifically, the formalist approach to comparative study tends to be restricted by a priori dogma that limits the comparison to grammatical concepts and parts of speech thought to be comparable in its theories.

Such formalist studies should be meaningful if their goal is to determine a 'universal grammar' or the like. It is, however, reasonable to think that comparative studies based on meaning are more useful for language education because, when learning an L2, learners essentially want to express in L2 what they can express in L1.

Since the Hallidian approach is based on meaning, researchers must constitute an analytic model to show how a common meaning can be mapped into different forms in two languages. When using a formalist approach, on the contrary, such a model is not required because a common form, or structure, between two languages is assumed theoretically.

It is regrettable, however, that in most Hallidian research on Japanese, researchers follow a Chomskian assumption of presuming a common structure between Japanese and English, and they tend to obtain few new findings, thus having little impact on the study of the Japanese language.

I have shown that the framework of Halliday and Hasan (1976) can well explain cohesion in Japanese texts (Iori 2007. See also Iori forthcoming a). In this paper, I attempt to describe the tense-aspect system of Japanese and compare it with English in a meaning-based framework.


Miyajima (1983) describes differences in how ideas in the semantic field of motion verbs are articulated in European languages. His work well explains differences between the meanings accessed in the two languages, providing useful insights to reference when attempting to compare two languages in a meaning-based framework.

For example, when comparing two verbs meaning “to fly in”—hereingeflogen in German with tobikondekuru in Japanese—we find that despite having almost the same constructions, semantically speaking, both her- and ein- are adverbs while all of tobi- (fly), konde- (come into), and kuru (come) are verbs.¹

By comparison, while English has two expressions meaning “come in”—the condensed form of “enter” and the analytic “go/come in,” it lacks the condensed form in the meaning of

¹ Konde- is an infinitive form of -komu, which is a verbal morpheme never used independently (i.e., a bound morpheme), while tobu (infinitive form: tobi-) and kuru can be used as either an independent word or as a verbal morpheme.
“go/come out” and thus has only the analytic “go/come out.” The condensed form is lacking because while English borrowed “entrer (enter)” from French, it did not borrow “sortir (go out).”

Miyajima says that “motion [idou]” is a universal phenomenon. [...] However, it differs somewhat from language to language in terms of how it is encoded (Miyajima 1983=1994: 43). This paper gives us an important and concrete implication when we consider how the same meaning is mapped into different languages, which is one of the theoretical research questions of this paper.

3. Importance of Comparison: Inoue (2013)

The following remarks by Inoue (2013:182) are important for comparative study.

(1) Comparing two languages or cultures involves arranging the characteristics of each and determining the “reasonable point(s)” by which “one can view both sides in a fair way.”

Inoue (2015) discusses this concretely using Feng’s (2006) comparison of responses by Chinese people when they cannot accept an invitation compared to those of Japanese people. While Chinese people give the fact of declination first, Japanese give the reason first, which confuses Chinese listeners.

Inoue concluded, as shown in (2) below, that two things are related in this case, and the only difference between the two languages is which aspect is given more weight in the communication in each language, but that “whether or not one says clearly” (Feng 2006) is not the essential point.

(2) a. Whether “talking in accordance with the reactions of addressee” (Chinese) or “avoiding saying something that may disappoint the addressee” (Japanese) is regarded as more important.

b. Whether “ending a talk by saying the important information first” (Japanese) or “continuing a talk by giving the addressee chance(s) to ask” is thought to be more important (Chinese).

IV. Description of the Tense-aspect System of Japanese

This section describes the Japanese tense-aspect system, keeping the above points in mind.


Kudo’s (1995) tense-aspect system, developed based on Okuda (1978)’s framework, is considered the standard description of the Japanese tense-aspect system in descriptive Japanese linguistics (Nihongogaku).\footnote{Moriyama (1988) is also important work which must be referenced.} Kudo’s system can be summarized as shown in Table 1.
TABLE 1  TENSE-ASPECT SYSTEM IN JAPANESE (1) (Kudo 1995; Iori 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Perfective</th>
<th>Imperfective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-past</td>
<td>ru-form(-ϕ^+ru)</td>
<td>teiru-form(-tei-ru)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>ta-form(-ϕ^ta)</td>
<td>teita-form(-tei-ta)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Argument from L2 acquisition: Cui (2009)

In Table 1, the teiru-form and teita-form are regarded only as tei + ru and tei + ta, respectively. However, L2 acquisition research has highlighted that the difficulty L2 learners experience with the two forms differs depending on the combination of the usage of the aspect (progressive/resultative) and tense. Cui (2009), one of the most important studies on the topic, ranks Japanese tenses as follows in order of increasing difficulty from a to c:

(3) a. present progressive
b. past progressive, present resultative
c. past resultative

Inagaki (2015) and Run (2017), partially refuting Cui (2009), suggest that the items in (3) should be listed instead as in (4), again in order of increasing difficulty:

(4) a. present progressive
b. past progressive
c. present resultative
d. past resultative

3. Description of the Tense-aspect System of Japanese (revised)

In Table 1, I present a revised version of the tense-aspect system in Japanese based on the arguments in section IV.2 (Iori 2014).6

4. Basic Usage

The Japanese tense-aspect system should be separated into two usages: basic and derived. Table 2 shows the basic usage, which consists of the progressive and resultative tenses.

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3 The ru-form is used in the non-past declarative sentence-final positions (with/without politeness).
4 ϕ shows that an element without overt forms exists.
5 Perfective and imperfective include the combination of aspect and tense (Okuda 1978; Kudo 1995). Aspect is unmarked in morphology in the perfective, and is marked by -tei- in the imperfective. The non-past of verbs is marked by -(r)u. -Ru is used in weak verbs, or itidan dousi in Japanese, while -u is used in strong verbs, or godan dousi. For more details, see Iori (2012, 2017).
6 For the description of the system for L2 leaners, see Iori and Shimizu (2016).
Table 2  Tense-aspect System in Japanese (2) (Basic Usage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Perfective</th>
<th>Imperfective</th>
<th>Function of -ru/-ta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-state verb</td>
<td>State verb</td>
<td>Non-change verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>ru²</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>teiru darou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past³</td>
<td>ta³</td>
<td>teita³</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1) Important points of the basic usage shown in Table 2

The following sections explain the main points from Table 2.

2) Classification of verbs

Japanese verbs are classified from the aspectual viewpoint as shown in Figure 1 (Cf. Okuda 1978¹⁰)

**Figure 1  Classification of Verb**

We can check whether a verb is a non-change verb or change verb using the following syntactic tests (Cf. Vendler 1967)¹³,¹⁴:

(5) a. If “interval words” + φ can co-exist with a verb and if “interval words + de” cannot, the verb is a non-change verb.

b. If “interval words + φ” cannot co-exist with a verb and if “interval words + de” can, the verb is a change verb.

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¹ -Ru/-Ta/-Teiru/-Teita are the abbreviated forms of the ru-/ta-/teiru-/teita-forms, respectively.

² -Ru/-Ta in teiru-/teita-form express the observation time or reference time. For more details, see Iori (2014).

³ Past perfective -ta and past imperfective -teita have similar but different usages (Iori 2018).

⁴ Terms used in Figure 1 are my own, based on Okuda (1978). See Iori (2017).

¹⁰ Terms in Japanese are as follows:
   - Non-state verb→hizyoutai dousi, State verb→zyoutai dousi
   - Non-change verb→henka dousi, Change verb→henka dousi

¹² Okuda (1978) merges state verbs and “type 4 verbs” in Kindaichi (1950) into “state verbs.” Note that, even when there is a formal contrast of the ru-form and teiru-form (as in niru: “to resemble”), Okuda does not admit aspectual contrast if the two verb forms do not show the contrast of the perfective and imperfective. Okuda calls such a case “false aspect” (or nise-asupekuto in Japanese).

¹³ “Interval words + φ” corresponds to “for + interval words” in English, while “interval words + de” corresponds to “in + interval words”.

¹⁴ Strictly speaking, (5) is a test frame to check if a verb is atelic/telic.
(6) Taro {ok 1zikan-ϕ/#1zikan de} hasitta.15 → “Hasiru (run)” is a non-change verb.
1 hour in ran
“Taro ran {ok for an hour/#in an hour}.”
(7) Koori wa {*10pun-ϕ/ok 10pun de} toketa.16 → “Tokeru (melt)” is a change verb.
Ice TOP minute melted
“The ice melted {*for 10 minutes/ok in 10 minutes}.”

3) Motion verbs

In Japanese, the teiru-form of motion verbs expresses that the agent is at the place the
movement heads for (i.e. they express the resultative aspect), and cannot express the process
(i.e., progress), in sharp contrast with English. Therefore, we can see the following contrast:

(8) Taro wa Oosaka ni itteiru.
TOP Osaka to go-IMP-PS
“Taro has gone to Osaka.”
(9) *Taro wa ima Oosaka ni itteiru. Imagoro wa sinkansen no naka da to omou.
Now of inside COP I think
“Taro is going to Osaka. I think he is on the Shinkansen now.”
(10) ok Taro wa ima, Oosaka ni mukatteiru. Imagoro wa sinkansen no naka da to omou.
head for-IMP-PS
“Taro is heading for Osaka. I think he is on the Shinkansen now.”

5. Derivational Usage18

There are five so-called “derivational” usages: repetition, experience-record, perfect,
counterfactual, and adjectival usage.

1) Repetition

Repetition can be expressed using both the teiru-form and ru-form; the former implies
more temporality.

(11) Taro wa {konogoro/ hitotuki mae kara/ϕ} asa 6zi ni okiteiru.
TOP these days one month before since morning 6 in wake up-IMP-PS
“Taro has been waking up 6 o’clock since last month.”

15 The latter is grammatical if the course Taro ran is limited, so we can get the following contrast.
(a)Taro wa 10kiro-o {*1zikan-ϕ/ok 1zikan-de} hasitta.
   TOP km ACC
   “Taro ran 10 km {*for an hour/ok in an hour}.”
16 Abbreviations used in this paper are as follows.
   ACC: Accusative, COND: Conditional, COP: Copula, DUR: Durative, FT: Future,
   IMP: Imperfective, NOM: Nominative, PERF: Perfective, PF: Perfect, POL: Polite,
   PS: Present, PST: Past, TOP: Topic
17 This sentence is grammatical in English but not in Japanese.
18 The usage discussed in this section is called “derivational” because, in contrast to “basic usage,” there are no
restrictions by verb types, as shown in Figure 1.
(12) Taro wa {konogoro/hitotuki mae/phi} asa 6zi ni okiru.
   “Taro wakes up at 6 o’clock in the morning {these days/since last month/phi}.”

2) “Perfect” in Kudo (1995)’s sense

Kudo (1995) uses “perfect” to captures both the “experience record” and “perfect” usages described in this paper. This is, however, an overly simplistic account: experience-record expresses effects of past events that remain in the present (Figure 2), while the perfect simply expresses the temporal sequential relation (Figure 3). The direction of the effect, indicated by dashed arrows, are opposite.

3) Experience-record

Experience-record, or keiken-kiroku in Japanese, implies that the effect of past events remains in the present; this usage can be subdivided into three types:

Type A
(13) Natsume Soseki wa 1867 nen ni umareteiru.20(ok umareta/*umareta ko ga aru)
   “(Lit.) Soseki Natsume has been born in 1867.”
   “Soseki Natsume {ok was born/*has been born} in 1867.”

Type B
(14) Kare wa koukouzidai Kanana de kurasiteiru.21 Dakara, eigo ga umai.
   “He has lived in Canada in his high school days, so he is good at English.”
   “He {ok lived/ok has lived} in Canada in his high school days.”

---

20 This type is commonly used in texts describing history.
21 “V-ta ko ga aru” is a perfect form, which expresses one’s experience of V requiring, contrary to the teiru-form, some interval of time between the event and the utterance time.
Type C

(15) (Setting: A detective is reporting information he collected on a criminal to his boss.)
Han’nin wa 3ka mae ni sono mise de susi o tabeteimasu.22
Criminal TOP 3 days ago in that store at sushi ACC eat-IMP-POL-PS
(*tabemasita/*tabeta ko ga arimasu)
eat-POL-PST/eat -PF-POL-PS
“(Lit.) The criminal has eaten sushi at the restaurant three days ago.”23
“The criminal {*ate/*has eaten} sushi at the restaurant three days ago.”

4) Perfect

Perfect, or kanryou in Japanese, expresses that an event had occurred, occurred, or will have occurred before the reference time.

(16) Kaizyou ni tuita toki, konsaato wa hazimatteiru-darou.24 (Future perfect)
Hall to arrive-PST when concert TOP begin-IMP-FT
“The concert will have begun when we arrive at the hall.”

(17) Konsaato wa ima hazimatta. (Present perfect25)
Now begin-PST
“The concert has begun.”

(18) Kaizyou ni tuita toki, konsaato wa hazimatteita. (Past perfect)
Hall to arrive-PST when concert TOP begin-IMP-PST
“The concert had begun when we arrived at the hall.”

5) Counterfactual

Counterfactuals in modern Japanese are usually expressed using the teiru-form and the teita-form, corresponding to the subjunctive past and subjunctive past perfect, respectively.

(19) Ima okane ga {areba/attara}, ano kamera o katteiru. (Counterfactual present)
Now money NOM be-COND that cameraACC buy-IMP-PS
“I would buy that camera if I had enough money.”

(20) Ano toki okane ga {areba/attara}, ano kamera o katteita. (Counterfactual past)
That time buy-IMP-PST
“I would have bought that camera if I had had enough money.”

Note that in both cases, ba-/tara-clauses (both are conditional subordinate clauses) are

22 Note that in this type, teiru (containing present morpheme) not teita (containing past) is used, although adverbs denote the past. Compare (15) with the following.
(b) Kare wa 3ka mae sono mise de susi o {ok tabeta/*taberu}.
TOP ACC eat-PST/eat-PS
“He {ok ate/*eats}” sushi at the restaurant three days ago.

23 A shop assistant who witnessed the criminal usually uses the teita-form, i.e., past progressive, because he observed the criminal.
(c) Han’nin wa 3ka mae kono mise de susi o {ok tabeteimasita/*tabeteimasu}.
This eat-IMP-POL-PST/ eat-IMP-POL-PS
“The criminal {ok was eating/*has eaten} sushi at this restaurant three days ago.”

24 -Ta in subordinate clause usually expresses relative tense (Mihara 1992; Iori 2012).

25 Present perfect in modern Japanese is expressed by the ta-form. For more detailed discussion, see Iori (2015b).
needed for the teiru-/teita-forms to be interpreted as counterfactual, in sharp contrast to their English counterparts.

(19) (Watasi wa) anokamera o katteiru.
    I TOP buy-IMP-PS
    “I have bought that camera.”
Cf. (19) “I would buy that camera.” (Ok as a subjunctive past.)
(20) (Watasi wa) anokamera o katteita.
    I TOP buy-IMP-PST
    “I had bought that camera.”
Cf. (20) “I would have bought that camera.” (Ok as a subjunctive past perfect.)

6) Adjectival usage

Teiru-forms can be used adjectivally as follows.

(21) Mearii wa aoi me o siteiru.
    Mary TOP blue eye ACC do-IMP-PS
    “Mary has blue eyes.”
(22) Yoshikowakireinkimono okiteiru.
    Beautiful wear-IMP-PS
    “Yoshiko wears a beautiful kimono.”

Note that in this usage, the ta-form is preferred to the teiru-form in noun-modifying positions.

(21) Aoi me o {(?)}siteiru /oksita Mary
    Do-IMP-PS/do-PST
    “Mary, who has blue eyes.”
(22) Kireinakimono o {(?)}kiteiru /okkita Yoshiko
    Wear-IMP-PS/wear-PST
    “Yoshiko, who wears a beautiful kimono.”

6. Summary

Table 3 summarizes the tense-aspect system in Japanese (× indicates that almost no cases exist.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Repetition</th>
<th>Experience-record</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Counterfactual</th>
<th>Adjectival</th>
<th>Function of -ru/-ta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>teiru darou</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>Reference time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>teiru</td>
<td>teiru</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>teiru</td>
<td>teiru</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>teita</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>teita</td>
<td>teita</td>
<td>teita</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* In counterfactual, ba-/tara- clauses are obligatory.
* -Ru/-Ta functions as a reference time in perfect and counterfactual tenses (Iori 2014).

As Tables 2 and 3 show, the Japanese tense-aspect system is composed of only a few
morphemes (-ϕ-, -tei-, -ru, -ta) and subordinate clauses (-ba/-tara clauses), and the functions of -ru/-ta (observation time and reference time).

Based on the temporal components shown in the tables, Japanese can be considered to have six tense components, as shown in Table 4.

### Table 4 Japanese Tense System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Present perfect</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future perfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teita</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>teiru/ru</td>
<td>teiru darou</td>
<td>ru</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Present tense of non-stative verbs corresponds to “basic usage” (progressive/resultative).

There are other aspectual forms expressing duration, or *keizoku* in Japanese\(^{26}\).

### Table 5 Forms Expressing Duration in Japanese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense of -ru/-ta</th>
<th>Observation time</th>
<th>Reference time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duration at observation time</td>
<td>Duration until reference time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>tuzuke(ϕ/tei)ru darou(^{27})</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>tuzuketeiru</td>
<td>tekita/tekiteiru(^{28})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>tuzuketeiru(ϕ/tei)(^{27})</td>
<td>tekiteita</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following are examples of each case\(^{30}\):

(23) a. Ame wa gogo mo hurituzukeru darou. (DOT-Future-PERF)

Rain TOP afternoon also fall-DUR-FT

“It will continue to rain in the afternoon.”

b. Watasi ga kaeru toki mo ame wa turituzuketeiru darou. (DOT-Future-IMP)

I NOM return when also fall-DUR-IMP-FT

“It will continue to rain when I go back to home.”

(24) Ame wa izen hurituzuketeiru. (DOT-Present)

Still fall-DUR-IMP-PS

“It is still raining.”

(25) a. Ame wa sono hino gogo mo hurituzuketa. (DOT-Past-PERF)

That day fall-DUR-PST

“It continued to rain in the afternoon of that day.”

b. Watasi ga kaeru toki mo awei wa izen furituzuketeita. (DOT-Past-IMP)

still fall-DUR-IMP-PST

“It was still raining when I went back home.”

\(^{26}\) Duration in this sense is that of Aktionsart; its aspectual meanings differ from perfective/imperfective (Cf. Teramura 1984; Moriyama 1988; Nitta 2009). Therefore, -tuzukeru has a syntagmatic relation with -tei-, meaning they can co-exist in a sentence.

\(^{27}\) In the future and past of a duration at a given observation time, ϕ indicates perfective and -tei- imperfective.

\(^{28}\) -Teki is a grammaticalized form of keri (come). There is little difference between -tekita and -tekiteiru.

\(^{29}\) -Teiku is a grammaticalized form of iku (go).

\(^{30}\) Abbreviations are the following.

DOT: duration at observation time; DURT: duration until reference time;
DFRT: duration from reference time.
In this section, I compare the Japanese tense-aspect system described above with its English counterpart, consulting Kashiwano (1999) for details of the English language. In other words, the comparison will be made using the Japanese system, shown in Tables 2 to 5, as a model. Tables 6 to 9 show the results of this comparison.

### Table 6: Tense-aspect System in English (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfective</th>
<th>Imperfective</th>
<th>Progressive</th>
<th>Resultative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-state verb</td>
<td>State verb</td>
<td>Non-change verb</td>
<td>Motion verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>will+Inf</td>
<td>will+Inf</td>
<td>will be+PsPrt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>present form</td>
<td>is+PsPrt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>past form</td>
<td>past form</td>
<td>was+PsPrt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### Notes:

31 Abbreviations are as follows: Inf: infinitive, PsPrt: Present participle, PstPrt: Past participle.

32 A sharp contrast between English and Japanese is observed in motion verbs: the former expresses progressive, while the latter expresses resultative.

(d) ok Taro is going to Osaka. I think he is on the Shinkansen now. (progressive)

e) * Taro wa ima Osaka ni itteiru. Imagoro wa sinkansen no naka da to omou.

(= 9) (ungrammatical under the interpretation (d))

33 In English, this type is usually recognized as an adjective.

(f) The glass [will be/is/was] broken.

For example, (f) ‘be+broken’ should be interpreted as an adjective, contrary to Japanese, in which ‘wareteiru darou/wareteiru/wareteita’ are all interpreted as a future/present/past form of ‘wareru (break; intransitive),’ i.e., resultative. Note that Brazilian Portuguese is, in this respect, more similar to Japanese than English. For more details, see Toffoli (2017).

34 ‘Is’ and ‘was’ in Tables 6 and 8 are the representative forms of all persons and numbers.
As can be seen in Tables 6 to 9, when compared with its Japanese counterpart, the tense-aspect system corresponds in most cases at the morpheme level. Note that, however, there is less correspondence in resultative usage.

VI. Conclusion

In this paper, I attempted to describe the Japanese tense-aspect system, as a basic study for Japanese language teaching, using the learners' knowledge of their mother tongues, and compared it with its English counterpart. Tables 2, 3, 6 and 7 show the corresponding patterns, which are presented again here.
These tables show that the tense-aspect systems in Japanese and English have a one-to-one correspondence, which means that the Japanese system should be rather easy for native and proficient English speakers to learn.

However, as learners rarely fully utilize this knowledge, many errors often remain in learners’ speech in terms of tense and aspect, even at the advanced level (Takanashi 2013).

The following are some of the tasks that will be addressed in future works.

First, we need to examine the correspondence of the system proposed in this paper in order to increase accuracy as a comparative study.

Second, we should compare English with other European languages (or languages having similar system to English) by modifying the English system proposed in this paper, or by using the English system as a model that enables comparisons between Japanese and other languages.

Third, we should compare the Japanese tense-aspect system with Chinese, which lacks tense as a grammatical category; this would enable comparisons to be made between Japanese and Southeast Asian languages such as Vietnamese and Thai, which have similar systems to Chinese.

The results of those comparisons will facilitate teaching the tense and aspect of the Japanese language and deepen our understanding of these grammatical categories.
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